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P-type β -Gallium Oxide: A new Perspective for Power and Optoelectronic Devices

Ekaterine Chikoidze^{a*}, Adel Fellous^a, Amador Perez-Tomas^b, Guillaume Sauthier^b, Tamar Tchelidze^c, Cuong Ton-That^d, Tung Thanh Huynh^d, Matthew Phillips^d, Stephen Russell^e, Mike Jennings^e, Bruno Berini^a, Francois Jomard^a, Yves Dumont^a

^aGroupe d'Etude de la Matière Condensée (GEMaC), Université de Versailles Saint Quentin en Y. – CNRS, Université Paris-Saclay, 45 Av. des Etats-Unis, 78035 Versailles Cedex, France

^bCatalan Institute of Nanoscience and Nanotechnology (ICN2), CSIC and The Barcelona Institute of Science and Technology, Barcelona, Spain

^cFaculty of Exact and Natural Science, Department of Physics, Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, 3 Av. Tchavtchavadze, 0179 Tbilisi, Georgia

^dSchool of Mathematical and Physical Science, University of Technology Sydney, Broadway, PO Box 123, NSW 2007, Australia

^eFaculty of Science, University of Warwick, Coventry CV4 7AL, U.K

corresponding author: E-mail : ekaterine.chikoidze@uvsq.fr

Abstract:

Wide-bandgap semiconductors (WBG) are expected to be applied to solid-state lighting and power devices, supporting a future energy-saving society. Here we present evidence of *p*-type conduction in the undoped WBG β -Ga₂O₃. Hole conduction, established by Hall and Seebeck measurements, is consistent with findings from photoemission and cathodoluminescence spectroscopies. The ionization energy of the acceptor level was measured to be 1.1eV above the valence band edge. The gallium vacancy was identified as a possible acceptor candidate based on thermodynamic equilibrium Ga₂O₃ (crystal) – O₂ (gas) system calculations (Kroger theory) which revealed a window without oxygen vacancy compensation. The possibility of fabricating large diameter wafers of β -Ga₂O₃ of *p* and *n* type nature, provides new avenues for high power and deep UV-optoelectronic devices.

Key words: Wide band gap semiconductor, beta-Ga₂O₃, electrical properties, hole conductivity, thermodynamic calculations

1. Introduction

Ga₂O₃ has recently attracted considerable interest for its unique combination of material properties [1,2] and relevance to many present and future application fields: extreme (also referred

to as so-called “ultra”) wide bandgap semiconductors (≥ 4.8 eV) for deep-ultraviolet optoelectronics, very large breakdown electrical field ($E_{br} = 8 \times 10^6$ V cm⁻¹) for high voltage and power electronics. Indeed recent breakthroughs in material quality have led to a “rediscovery” of β -Ga₂O₃ as an ultra-wide bandgap transparent conductor [3]. Demonstrators include transparent field-effect transistors [4], photodetectors [5,6], use as a material for microwave and optical maser [7], as well as a material for electroluminescent devices [8] and chemical sensing [9]. Moreover, its very wide bandgap and large disruptive critical electrical field has allowed Ga₂O₃ to emerge as the fourth generation material platform for power electronics [10,11], (after silicon, silicon carbide and gallium nitride) [12,13].

Nevertheless, all the Ga₂O₃ devices demonstrated thus far are unipolar (only *n*-type) [2,14-18]. In order to realize the full potential for WBG (opto)electronics β -Ga₂O₃, will need bipolar junction based devices, for which *p*-type doping will be required. The bipolar junction would be engineered by combining *p*-type transparent TCOs with either, *n*-type Ga₂O₃ or the common *n*-type ones (namely In₂O₃, SnO₂ and ZnO and its alloys) into transparent *p-n* heterojunctions in a range of thin-film transistor applications. *P*-type requirement is also important in the power electronics context, where a high current carrying capability is desirable when considering applications such as grid-level converters. *P*-type Ga₂O₃ would allow the definition of Ga₂O₃ *p-n* junction building blocks and therefore any traditional Silicon-type devices would be engineered; including metal-oxide-semiconductor transistor field-effect devices (MOSFETs), (complementary) CMOS logic or bipolar devices such as pin diodes or insulator gate bipolar transistors (IGBT).

The current approach to achieve hole conductivity in Ga₂O₃ devices is by the definition of heterostructures of known *p*-type semiconductors such as *p*-type oxides (Ir₂O₃ [19], NiO_x [20]) or acceptor doped semiconductors (Si [21], SiC [22,23] or graphene [5]), with known disadvantages of crystalline and electronic band structure miss-matches. *P* doping in Ga₂O₃ is hugely challenging as an oxide (oxide usually has tendency of formation donor type oxygen vacancies, causing *n*-type conduction) and as an ultra-wide bandgap material, intrinsic conductivity is rare and even doping (“*p*” and “*n*”) is normally not symmetrical. This lack of hole conductivity is probably the main limitation of emerging gallium oxide technology.

Currently, *p*-type wide bandgap oxides are in the form of binary copper oxides [24]. Cu-based delafosites [25], tin monoxide [26], nickel oxide [27] or layered oxide-chalcogenides [28]. Each of these have a valence band made of deep localized oxygen *2p* orbitals, which are responsible for poor hole transport in these materials [29]. Owing to its extreme wide bandgap, doping *p*-type β -Ga₂O₃ has been considered practically challenging-if not impossible. Usually nominal undoped as grown β -Ga₂O₃ single crystals and thin films are generally *n*-type, because of the existence of unintentional impurities [30, 31]. *P*-type conductivity was theoretically predicted in gallium oxide by doping group I and II metals from the Mendeleyev table [32,33].

However, there is no experimental demonstration of this in the literature up to date. Some of the challenges to be overcome in order to realize hole conductivity are [34]: /i/ very wide bandgap, /ii/ high formation energy of point defects that are *hole producers*, e.g. native acceptors such as cation vacancies, /iii/ small ionization energy for these defects so as to readily release holes, i.e., a shallow acceptor level with respect to the host valence band; and most crucially /iv/ low energy of *hole killer* native defect donors such as cation interstitials and anion vacancies. In particular oxygen vacancies act as compensating donors and both as grown β -Ga₂O₃ films and bulk crystals are invariably found to be *n*-type in the literature [30,31].

This work reveals (via a range of characterization techniques) that intrinsic majority hole conduction can exist and emerge in nominally undoped β -Ga₂O₃, when compensation by background native donors is reduced.

2. Material and methods

Commercial pulsed laser deposition grown $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3/c$ -sapphire epiwafers were provided by Nanovation (www.nanovation.com) [35]. The thickness of the gallium oxide films was around 300 nm, estimated using optical reflection interferometry with an Ocean Optics Nanocalc system. As a reference, *n*-type sample commercial Si-doped β - Ga_2O_3 from Novel Crystal Technology, Inc was used in case of photo-spectroscopy study. While for cathodoluminescence measurement we had commercial *n*-type β - Ga_2O_3 single crystal from MTI Inc. SEM images were recorded with a JEOL JSM 7001F electron microscope.

The crystallographic structure of the films was analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD) with a Siemens D-5000 diffractometer using Cu-K_α radiation ($\lambda = 1.54 \text{ \AA}$). Topography of the films had been investigated by AFM (Bruker Dimension 3100) in tapping mode using commercial tips with 300 kHz resonant frequency and 40 N m^{-1} spring constant. Secondary-ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) was carried out with the aid of a Cameca IMS 4f tool. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS) measurements were performed with a Phoibos 150 analyzer (SPECS GmbH, Berlin, Germany) in ultra-high vacuum conditions (basic pressure 3×10^{-10} mbar). XPS measurements were performed with a monochromatic K_α X-ray source (1486.74 eV). UPS measurements were realized with a monochromatic HeI UV source (21.2 eV).

Optical transmission spectra were measured in 200-2000 nm spectral range with a Perkin Elmer 9 spectrophotometer.

Ti/Au electrical contacts were deposited by RF-sputtering. Hall Effect measurements were performed in a Van der Pauw configuration in the temperature range of 80 K to 300 K and for magnetic fields perpendicular to the film plane varying from -1.6 T to 1.6 T, using a high impedance measurement set-up which was custom designed for measurement of high resistance diamond samples. Carrier type testing was also done using Seebeck effect measurements at 300 K-400 K with a home built set-up (also specially adapted for high impedance samples) based on a Keithley SCS-4200 measurement station and cascade Microtech Kelvin probes.

Cathodoluminescence microanalysis of the films was conducted in an FEI Quanta 200 Environmental SEM equipped with a diamond machined parabolic light collector and a Hamamatsu S7011-1007 CCD spectrometer.

The thermodynamic equilibrium in the Ga_2O_3 (crystal)– O_2 (gas) system was modeled by the Kroger method of quasi-chemical equations. In this method, the creation of dominant defects and charge carriers are written as chemical reactions. The corresponding mass action laws, together with the electro-neutrality condition and impurity mass balance equation, give a system of equations for the concentrations of the main charged species (acceptor and donor defects, electrons and holes) existing in the crystal.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Structural, chemical analyses

Fig. 1a shows a photograph of a 2 inch diameter β -Ga₂O₃ wafer that has undergone Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) and Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM). This characterization showed that the film has a fine granular surface morphology composed of an irregular agglomeration of grains on a tens-of-nm scale. Root Mean Squared roughnesses (R_{RMS}) were in the region of 7 nm (mean of three $1\ \mu\text{m} \times 1\ \mu\text{m}$ areas) which is similar to other reported values (varying between 3 and 8 nm) for β -Ga₂O₃ thin films [36, 37].

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) 2 theta scan for the β -Ga₂O₃ / c-Al₂O₃ epiwafer (Figure 1b) reveals three different diffraction peaks located at 2θ values of 18.73° , 38.22° , and 58.87° . The peaks are indexed as the $(\bar{2}01)$, (402) and (603) reflections of monoclinic β -Ga₂O₃ (**Fig. 1b**) indicating a layer with a strong $(\bar{2}01)$ preferred orientation, as reported elsewhere for β -Ga₂O₃ films grown on c-sapphire [15,16,39].

Secondary Ion Mass Spectroscopy (SIMS) compositional depth profiling was performed for Si, Sn, Ge, P, N, and Al. Measurement profiles shown in **Fig. 1c** demonstrate that Ga₂O₃-sapphire interface is very sharp and clear. There was an absence of all cited impurities, above the level of the SIMS detection limit ($10^{14}\ \text{cm}^{-3}$).

The optical transmission spectrum (**Fig. 1d**) reveals that the transparency of the Ga₂O₃-on-Al₂O₃ wafer is higher than 80 % for 280-700 nm wavelength range, as is could be expected for undoped Ga₂O₃ [36,39-41]. The optical band edge was estimated to be around 230 nm.

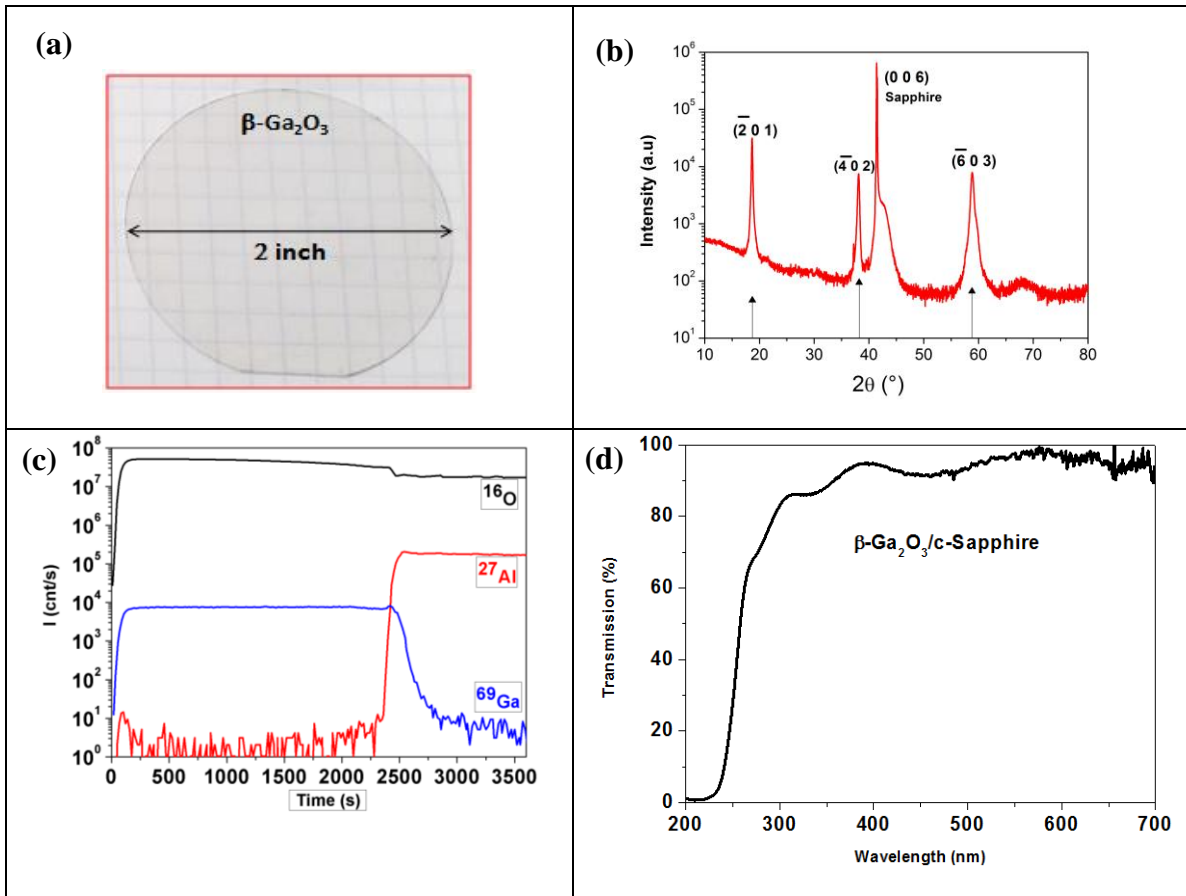


Fig. 1. (a) Photograph of a commercial, specially elaborated, 2-inch β -Ga₂O₃ / c-sapphire epiwafer from Nanovation; (b) Cu-K α 2 θ X-ray diffractogram, with arrows indicating β -Ga₂O₃ Bragg peak; (c) SIMS compositional depth profiles; (d) Optical transmission spectrum.

3.2. Electrical properties

Because of the WBG, nominally undoped β -Ga₂O₃ is generally highly resistive [2,42]. Deviations from oxygen stoichiometry (and in particular oxygen vacancies) have been invoked to explain a relatively high *n*-type conductivity observed in some nominally undoped Ga₂O₃ bulk crystals and thin films. However this hypothesis seems to be questionable as hybrid functional density calculations predict the oxygen vacancy to be a deep donor with ionization energy higher than 1 eV [29]. Higher *n*-type conductivity can also be efficiently achieved by impurity doping with Sn, Si, Ge, F or Cl [14]. A detailed study of the electrical transport properties of the β -Ga₂O₃ / *c*-Al₂O₃ structure was performed. Ohmic contacts were prepared by RF-sputtering of Ti (50 nm) / Au (200 nm) bilayers at the four corners of the sample (**Fig. 2b**).

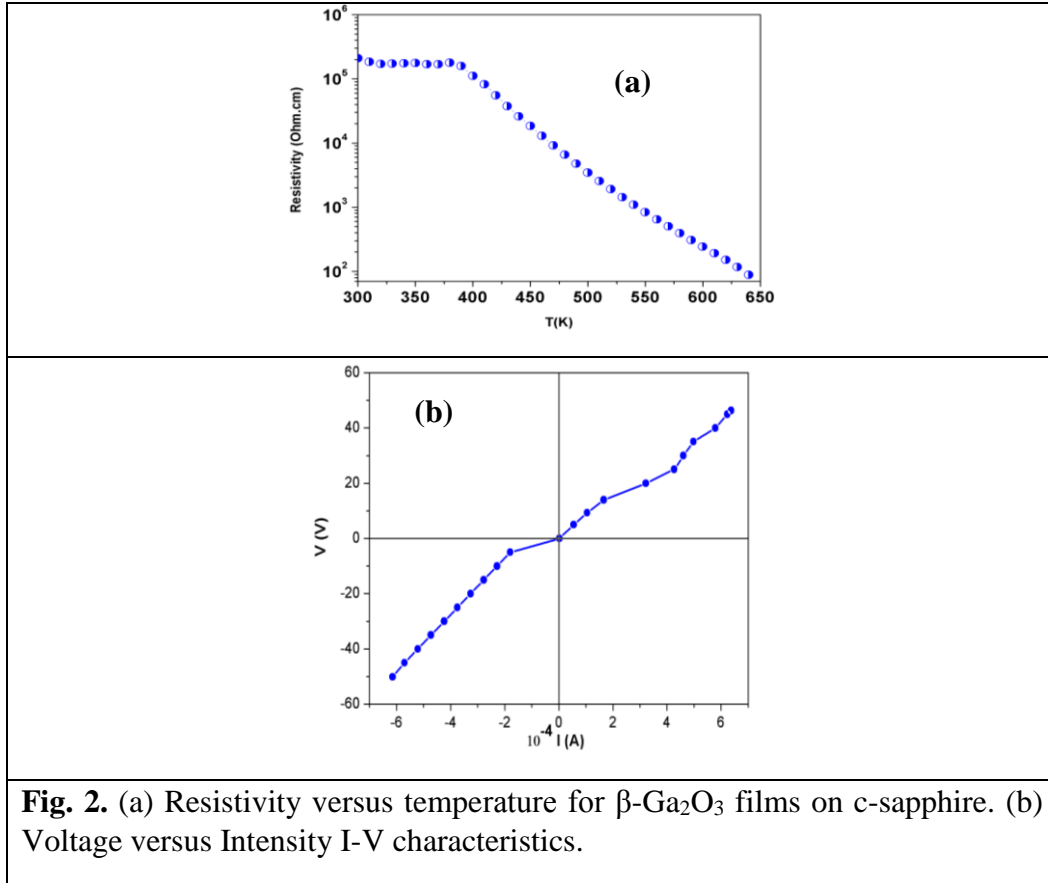


Fig. 2. (a) Resistivity versus temperature for β -Ga₂O₃ films on c-sapphire. (b) Voltage versus Intensity I-V characteristics.

The resistivity measured in a Van der Pauw configuration is as high as $2 \times 10^5 \Omega \text{ cm}$. Heating the sample up to 650 K leads, as usually happens for semi-insulating material, to a reduction of resistivity down to $1.8 \times 10^2 \Omega \text{ cm}$ (**Fig. 2a**).

Van der Pauw Hall Effect measurements were employed to determine the carrier type, density and mobility. When the sample is of high resistance ($> 10^7 \Omega$), determination of carrier type is not trivial, due to the difficulty in correctly extracting the Hall voltage (V_H) from the total

measured voltage. To validate the measurement, applied magnetic field dependence of V_H was performed at different temperatures. In non-magnetic material, V_H is linearly proportional to applied magnetic field and positive sign indicates that the majority charge carriers are p-type (holes). Hall voltage measurements at varying magnetic fields (0-1.6 T) and several temperatures (520-610 K), highlight positive V_H , which linearly increase with perpendicularly applied magnetic field. This implies that the epilayer is p-type (**Fig. 3**).

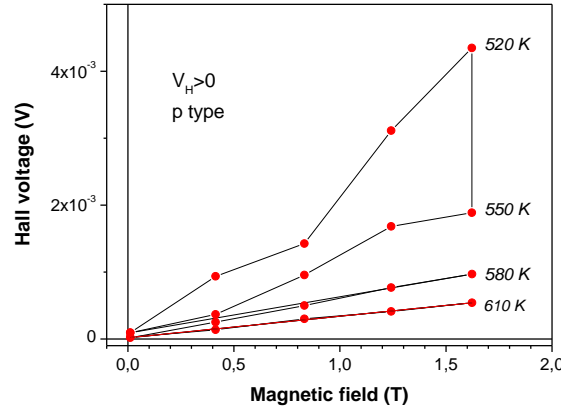
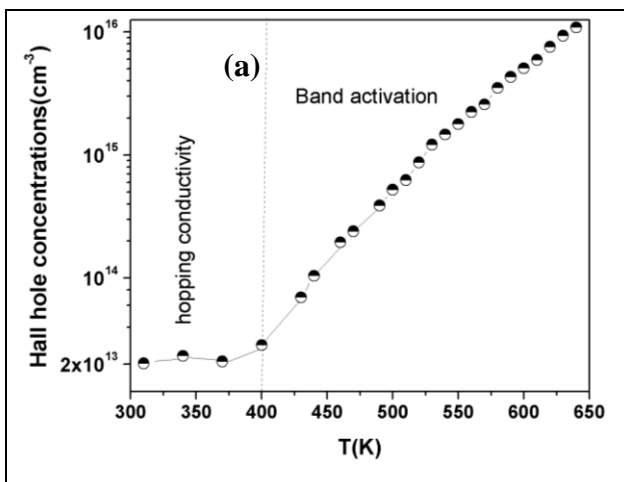


Fig. 3 Hall voltage V_H versus applied perpendicular magnetic field at different temperatures.

The carrier type was confirmed using a home-built Seebeck effect measurement setup, specially adapted for high resistive samples. Measurements were performed with the same sample, utilizing the Ti/Au Ohmic contacts. A Seebeck coefficient with a positive sign was obtained, confirming the majority carriers to be holes. The Seebeck coefficient, S , was $+36 \mu\text{V K}^{-1}$ at room temperature.

The temperature dependence of the hole concentration, p (cm^{-3}), is shown in (**Fig. 4a**). These characteristics exhibit a hopping conductivity regime in the 300-400 K range, and a band activated regime in the 400-650 K temperature range. This is characteristic of (a) deep acceptor level(s). A further study of the acceptor ionization energy E_i (eV) has been made.



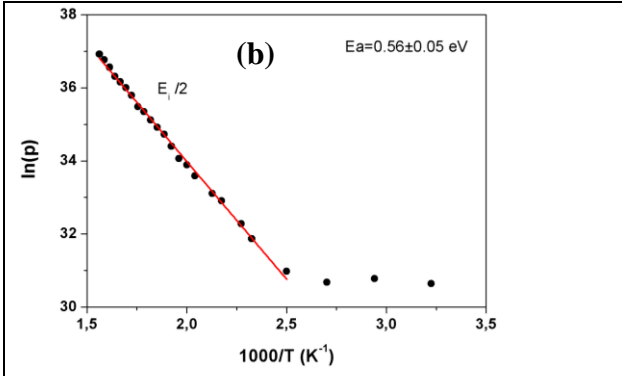


Fig. 4 (a) temperature dependence of the hole concentration p . (b) $\ln(p)$ versus $1000/T$ plot leading to a carrier activation energy

$$E_a = 0.56 \pm 0.05 \text{ eV}.$$

For a p -type semiconductor, the general description of the hole concentration at a temperature T (K) is given by the neutrality equation:

$$\frac{g_d p(N_D + p)}{M_v(N_A - N_D - p)} = \exp\left(-\frac{E_i}{kT}\right) \quad (1)$$

Where k is Boltzmann's constant ($\text{m}^2 \text{kg s}^{-2} \text{K}^{-1}$), g_d is the acceptor degeneracy, and N_A is the acceptor concentration (cm^{-3}), N_D is the compensating donor concentration (cm^{-3}), M_v is the hole density of states in the valence band.

At higher temperatures, (in the region where experimental measurements were carried out) in the so-called negligible compensation regime where $N_A \gg p \gg N_D$, the activation energy is $E_i/2$, and p is given by:

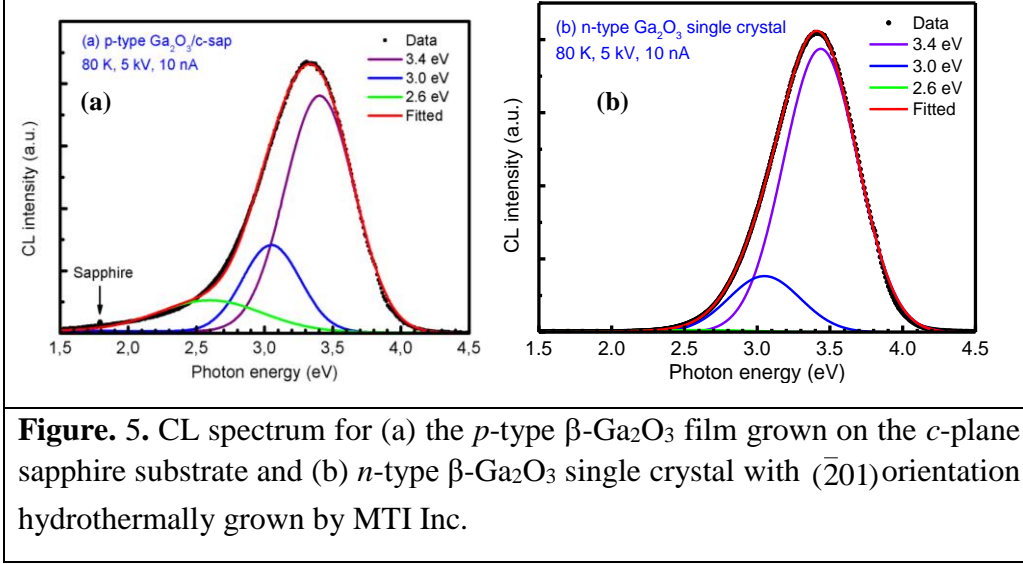
$$p = \left[\frac{N_A M_v}{g_d} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{E_i}{2kT}\right) \quad (2)$$

The carrier activation energy, E_a , is obtained from a linear regression in a $\ln(p)$ versus $1000/T$ plot (**Fig. 4b**). A value of $E_a = 0.56 \pm 0.05 \text{ eV}$ was found. In this low compensation regime, the relationship between defect activation and ionization energies is $E_i = 2E_a$, meaning that the ionization energy of the acceptor defect responsible for the conductivity is around $E_i = 1.12 \text{ eV}$. Hall mobility of holes does not change significantly within the 300-650 K temperature interval, increasing from $0.2 \text{ cm}^2 \text{V}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ at 300K (in the hopping regime) to $4.2 \text{ cm}^2 \text{V}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ at 650 K (in the band activation regime). In n -type, $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ thin films, Hall mobility is typically relatively low (below $30 \text{ cm}^2 \text{V}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$), as in other WBG oxide semiconductors [43 - 45]. The significantly lower hole mobility measured in these p -type films could be explained by the large effective mass value of holes estimated by Varley *et al.* [46]. We have studied also much thinner, 70 nm $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ sample. It shows similar conductivity, carrier activation energies and p -type majority carriers.

3.3. Evidences of Acceptor Levels

3.3.1. Cathodoluminescence

Cathodoluminescence was performed at 80 K for our *p*-type epilayer and, by comparison, for an *n*-type β -Ga₂O₃ commercial single crystal from MTI Inc. (**Fig. 5**).



Based on literature reports on β -Ga₂O₃ luminescence [47-49], the spectra can be fitted with three components (**Fig. 5a**): a 3.4 eV ultraviolet (UV) peak shown in violet (with Full Width at Half Maximum (FWHM) = 0.60 eV), a 3.0 eV blue (BL) peak shown in blue (FWHM = 0.5 eV) and a green (GL) peak 2.6 eV shown in green (FWHM = 0.9 eV). The UV emission has been assigned to the recombination of an electron with a self-trapped hole (STH). The BL and GL have been attributed to native point defects, a donor V_O and either an acceptor V_{Ga} or a V_O - V_{Ga} complex, respectively. The GL is absent in the *n*-type crystal (**Fig. 5b**) but present in the *p*-type epilayer suggesting it could be a signature emission of the acceptors.

3.3.2. X-ray photoelectron and photoemission spectroscopy

The room temperature photoemission spectrum for the Ga2*p*, Ga3*p*, O1*s* and C1*s* core levels is shown in (**Fig. 6a**). The binding energy value of the core level for the Ga2*p* states at 1119.3 eV (as determined by M. Marcel *et al.* [50]) on cleaved β -Ga₂O₃ single crystals was used for calibrating the binding energy positions of the XPS spectra. The Ga2*p* states show a reasonably sharp structure with a FWHM of 1.8 eV. The main O1*s* level appears at 532.05 eV, while the photoelectrons from the filled Ga3*d*¹⁰ give a peak at 21.3 eV (which is as expected based on reference studies [50]).

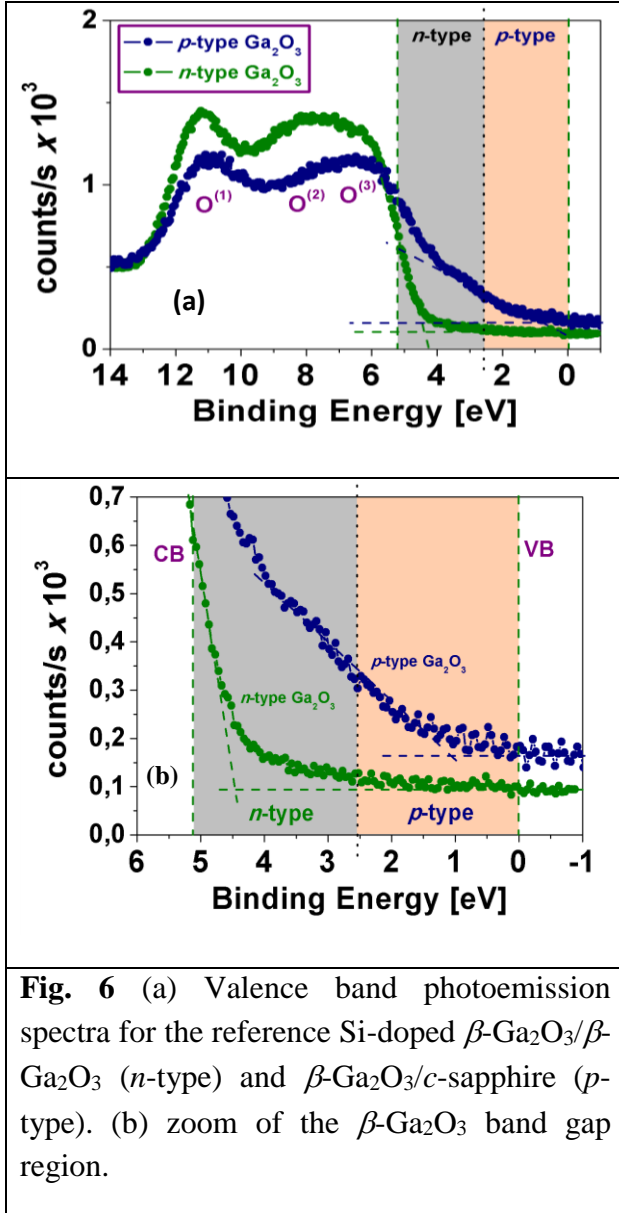


Fig. 6 (a) Valence band photoemission spectra for the reference Si-doped $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3/\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (n -type) and $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3/c\text{-sapphire}$ (p -type). (b) zoom of the $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ band gap region.

The XPS spectra from the surface of a control sample of a 500 nm thick commercial (Novel Crystal Technology, Inc.) epiwafer of nominally n -type Si-doped $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ ($N_d - N_a = 1.3 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$) grown on a single crystal $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ were used as a benchmark for the $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3/c\text{-sapphire}$ valence band determination. The XPS spectrum has once again been calibrated with respect to the $\text{Ga}2p$ energy at 1119.3 eV. The energies of $\text{O}1s$ and $\text{Ga}3d$ have been determined to be 522.07 eV and 21.4 eV, respectively. The binding energies of the core levels of the $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3/c\text{-sapphire}$ and the control samples are, again, very similar.

There are however visible differences in the shape of the $\text{O}1s$ level between the control (that exhibits a secondary shoulder at ~ 533 eV [51]) and the $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3/c\text{-sapphire}$ surface, which has a more asymmetric peak centred at 532.05 eV. The $\text{O}1s$ secondary shoulder is attributed to carbon surface contamination (in the form of C-O bonds) [50,51]. Another notable difference is the $\text{O}2s$ peak (at a binding energy of ~ 25 eV) [57-59] which is clearly visible for the reference but is not observed for the $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3/c\text{-sapphire}$. The $\text{Ga}3d$ reference peak is asymmetrical with a shoulder appearing at smaller binding energies (~ 20 eV). This shoulder was ascribed to the hybridization of $\text{Ga}3d$ and $\text{O}2s$ states near the valence band [51].

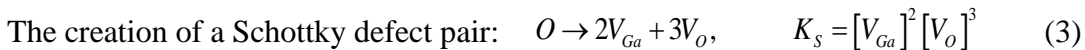
There also are remarkable differences between C1s core-level from the β -Ga₂O₃/c-sapphire and the Si-doped β -Ga₂O₃ homo-epitaxial reference. The relative amount of carbon at the surface is larger in the reference while the peak distribution is clearly different. While the reference C1s core level agrees well with a combination of C-O and C-H bonds, the β -Ga₂O₃/c-sapphire carbon signal seems to be primarily due to Ga-C bonds [45].

The covalent bonding interaction is due to the symmetry of the Ga4s states which enables a more energetically favorable bonding with the *p*-states of the oxygen. Several theoretical [54-56] and experimental studies [50-52,56] suggest that the partial density of states for the valence band is predominantly of O2*p* character while the conduction band states are predominantly derived from Ga4s and Ga4*p* states mixed with some contributions of O2*p*.

Very relevant for this study is the position of the Fermi level from the valence band, which is shown in **Fig. 6a**. From the valence band photoemission spectra it is possible to evaluate the electronic surface properties of the thin-films. The three maxima of the O2*p* valence band correspond to the three different oxygen sites in β -Ga₂O₃ (O⁽¹⁾, O⁽²⁾ and O⁽³⁾). The valence band width for the reference sample is around 8 eV, which is in agreement with previous reports [50]. Nevertheless, there is an exceptionally large number of tail states extending deeper in the bandgap for the β -Ga₂O₃ / c-sapphire surface compared to the reference n-type sample. The extrapolation of the first slope (at $\sim 5 \times 10^2$ counts/s) gives Fermi level values of around 1.0 eV and 4.4 eV for the β -Ga₂O₃ / c-sapphire and control, respectively. It is also of note that there is a small but non-negligible number of states extending even deeper into the bandgap, with energies as low as ~ 0.5 eV above the valence band. These very remarkable differences in thin film valence band profiles are consistent with there being *p*-type conductivity in the β -Ga₂O₃/ c-sapphire epiwafer.

3.4. Thermodynamic analyses of point defect and charge carrier concentration equilibrium in Ga₂O₃

The thermodynamic equilibrium in the Ga₂O₃ (crystal) – O₂ (gas) system was modeled in order to define the dependence of point defects, charge carriers on temperature and oxygen partial pressure in the surrounding atmosphere. Knowing these dependences, the treatment temperature and oxygen pressure, for which creation of compensating donor defects are suppressed and acceptors and holes become dominant species can be determined. The analysis was made using the Kroger method of quasi-chemical equations [57]. In this approach, the creation of dominant defects and charge carriers are written as chemical reactions. The corresponding mass action laws, together with the electro-neutrality condition and impurity mass balance equation, give a system of equations for the concentrations of the main charged species (acceptor and donor defects, electrons and holes) existing in the crystal. As stated above, the main candidates for shallow donor and acceptor defects in β -Ga₂O₃, are gallium and oxygen vacancies, respectively. However, the association of gallium and oxygen vacancies is also considered as shallow compensating defect for *n*-type doping [43]. Proceeding from this, the main processes considered for the corresponding mass action law are the following:



where K_S is reaction constants (**Table 1**).

The incorporation of oxygen atoms in a crystal from the surrounding atmosphere, when copper and chromium vacancies (V_{Cu} and V_{Cr} , respectively) are created:

$$\frac{3}{2}O_2 \rightarrow 3O_0 + V_{Ga}, \quad K_{V_{Ga}} = \frac{[V_{Ga}]^2}{P_{O_2}^{3/2}} \quad (4a)$$

$$\frac{3}{2}O_2 \rightarrow 3O_0 + 2V_{Cr}, \quad K_{V_{Cr}} = \frac{[V_{Cr}]^2}{P_{O_2}^{3/2}} \quad (4b)$$

The lattice thermal ionization:

$$O \rightarrow e + h, \quad K_i = np \quad (5)$$

where e and h are electrons and holes, respectively, and n and p their concentrations

The ionization of the gallium vacancy

$$V_{Ga} \rightarrow V_{Ga}' + h, \quad K_a = \frac{[V_{Ga}']p}{[V_{Ga}]} \quad (6)$$

where V_{Ga}' is denote positively single-charged gallium vacancy

The ionization of the oxygen vacancy

$$V_O \rightarrow V_O^\bullet + e, \quad K_d = \frac{[V_O^\bullet]n}{[V_O]} \quad (7)$$

where V_O^\bullet is denote negatively single-charged oxygen vacancy

The association of vacancies:

$$V_O + V_{Ga} \rightarrow (V_{Ga} - V_O), \quad K_{Ass} = \frac{[(V_{Ga} - V_O)]}{[V_{Ga}][V_O]} \quad (8)$$

where K_{Ass} is reaction constant of associated defect creation

$$\text{The ionization of associate} \quad (V_{Ga} - V_O) \rightarrow (V_{Ga} - V_O)' + h \quad K_{Ass}^i = \frac{[(V_{Ga} - V_O)']p}{[(V_{Ga} - V_O)]} \quad (9)$$

where K_{Ass}^i is reaction constant for ionized $(V_{Ga} - V_O)'$ defect creation.

Charge neutrality condition

$$[V_O^\bullet] + p = n + [V_{Ga}'] \quad (10)$$

The temperature of oxygen treatment was fixed as 500°C and calculated dependence of concentrations on oxygen partial pressure. The results of solving equations (3)-(9) are given in (**Fig. 7**).

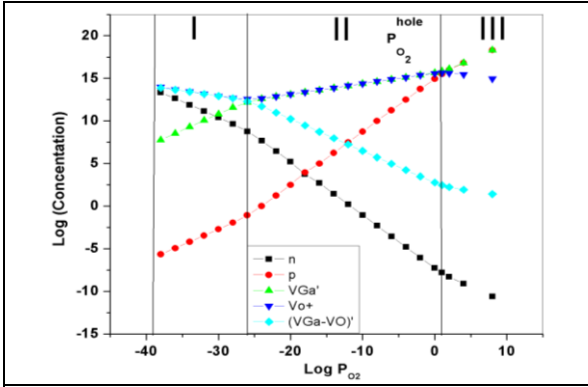


Fig. 7 Dependence of concentrations of charge carriers and charged point defects on oxygen partial pressure in Torr (= 1.33 mbar). $P_{hole} \approx 13.3$ mbar.

In figure the three regions are distinguished:

/i/ in the first region (left hand side) it is clearly seen that $[V_O^\bullet] = [V_{Ga} - V_O]'$ (11)

and these concentrations are the largest. Therefore eq. (8) can be simplified to (9) in this region.

/ii/ In the second region with increasing oxygen pressure, concentration of V_O decreases and compensation gets the form $[V_O^\bullet] = [V_{Ga}']$ (12)

/iii/ in the third region, holes and acceptor vacancies are the dominant species and intrinsic hole conductivity should take place and $p = [V_{Ga}']$ (13)

The pressures at which compensation type changes can be easily found by means of discontinuity of the concentrations at the boundaries. For the boundary between the second and third region hole concentration on oxygen partial pressure is expressed as:

$$P_{hole} = \frac{K_s^{2/3} K_d^2}{K_g^2 K_v^{2/3}} \quad (14)$$

P_{hole} is a very important quantity, because it can be considered as a measure of the strength of the compensation process. When the Fermi level lowers during p -doping, the creation enthalpy of intrinsic donor defects (vacancies) decreases, and high oxygen pressure is needed in the surrounding atmosphere in order to prevent evaporation of oxygen from the growing crystal. The higher the P_{hole} , the more difficult it is to achieve successful p -doping. **Fig. 7** shows, that for β -Ga₂O₃ at 500° C, $P_{hole} \approx 1.33 \times 10^{-2}$ atm with a hole concentration around $p \approx 10^{15}$ cm⁻³. For comparison, calculations for ZnO give $P_{hole} \approx 10^3$ atm, for the same temperature [58]. The reason for such a difference might be most likely the higher formation energy of donor vacancies in β -Ga₂O₃ (approximately 1 eV higher per vacancy), making compensation mechanism by point defects less favorable in gallium oxide than in ZnO. Subsequently, it can be expected that p -type samples of β -Ga₂O₃ with higher carrier concentrations (then intrinsic) can be obtained when doping with shallow impurities.

Table 1. Reaction constants used in thermodynamic analyses.

Reaction	Reaction constants
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$O \rightarrow 2V_{Ga} + 3V_O$	$K_S = 10^2 \exp(-18.4eV / k_B T)$
$3/2 O_2 \rightarrow 3O_O + 2V_{Ga}$	[59,60]
$O \rightarrow e + h$	$K_V = 10^2 \exp(-4.5eV / k_B T)$ *)
	$K_i = N_C N_V \exp(-4.8eV / k_B T)$
	[61]
$V_{Ga} \rightarrow V_{Ga}' + h$	$K_a = 2N_V \exp(-0.9eV / k_B T)$
$V_O \rightarrow V_O^\bullet + e$	$K_d = 2N_C \exp(-0.55eV / k_B T)$
	[62]
$V_O + V_{Ga} \rightarrow (V_O - V_{Ga})$	$K_{ass} = \exp(2.25eV / k_B T)$ *)
$(V_O - V_{Ga}) \rightarrow (V_O - V_{Ga})' + h$	$K_{Ass}^i = 2N_c \exp(-0.42eV / k_B T)$ [47]

*) Estimated by means of approaches developed in F.A. Kroger, “*The chemistry of imperfect crystals*”, North-Holland Publishing Company, Amsterdam, 1964, pp.1039 [57]

Thus, Hall Effect, Seebeck, photoemission spectroscopy and cathodoluminescence spectroscopy studies, show that, nominally undoped β -Ga₂O₃ / *c*-sapphire epiwafers exhibit intrinsic majority *p*-type conduction. Acceptor candidate V_{Ga} or its complexes, are supported by the thermodynamic equilibrium of Ga₂O₃ (crystal)–O₂(gas) system calculations (Kroger theory), showing a “window” without oxygen vacancy V_O compensation (a common donor in transparent oxides). Hole conduction in the β -Ga₂O₃ semiconductor is possible. This situation is a crucial step towards the realization of effective *p*-type doping. This fact distinguishes β -Ga₂O₃ from other WBG oxides (ZnO, SnO₂ or In₂O₃), where *p*-type is similarly a challenge. Such a particularity is related with physical-chemistry of the point defects in Ga₂O₃, mainly that the enthalpy of creation of Schottky defects, is quite high (at approximately 3.68 eV per vacancy). Consequently, the creation of donor oxygen vacancies is not as favorable as in ZnO for example. This decreases the compensation possibility, making hole conduction favorable. Intrinsic low hole conductivity is achieved only in transparent oxides such as CuCrO₂ [63,64], Cu₂SrO₂ [65,66], NiO [67], and FeTiO₃ [68], each having much lower band gaps (~ 3.2 - 3.5 eV) than β -Ga₂O₃.

4. Conclusion

Attaining this relatively low level of *p*-type doping in gallium oxide may already be an important step for technological integration. Mainly, in power applications, the *p*-type conductivity is particularly important as the *p-n* junction could sustain larger voltages than any Schottky unipolar junction. The ultra-large critical field of Ga₂O₃ could only seriously be exploited in *p-i-n* structures [69]. In other words, the demonstration of Ga₂O₃ bipolarity represents a definitive step forward when taking into account this potentially low-cost oxide wide band gap semiconductor technology in power applications now dominated by the prohibitively expensive Silicon Carbide substrates.

In optoelectronics applications, the demonstration of *p*-type Ga₂O₃ is also relevant. A high performance, ultra-wide bandgap *p*-type transparent conducting oxide (TCO) would leverage the great promise of oxides for transparent electronics and optoelectronics. Owing to their ultra-large optical band gap, a particularly important field of application of bipolar Ga₂O₃ transparent electrodes is as conducting electrodes for deep ultraviolet light emitting diodes and sensors.

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